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--Manuscript Draft--

**High-energy flood events recorded in the Mesoproterozoic Meall
Dearg Formation, NW Scotland; their recognition and implications for
the study of pre-vegetation alluvium**

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ABSTRACT

The Mesoproterozoic-Neoproterozoic Torridonian Sandstone of NW Scotland has renewed sedimentological significance following recent advances in the understanding of pre-vegetation alluvium, as it is one of the most extensive and easily-accessible successions of such strata worldwide. This paper presents the first modern sedimentological analysis of the unit's constituent Meall Dearg Formation (late Mesoproterozoic), recognizing a dominance of alluvial facies, with subordinate aeolian facies. Alluvial strata within the Meall Dearg Formation contain direct evidence for event deposition by high-energy floods, including: (1) widespread upper- and transitional-upper flow regime elements; (2) frequent stacking of successively-lower flow-regime elements; (3) common subcritical subaqueous dune fields with superimposed ripple marks; (4) occasional thin, desiccated mudstones; and (5) evidence that microbial mats colonized substrates during intervals of sedimentary stasis. Together these strands of primary sedimentary geological evidence indicate that the alluvial deposition of the Meall Dearg Formation was typified by supercritical flows during high-energy floods, punctuated by prolonged intervals of sedimentary stasis. The preservation potential of all of the features was boosted by highly aggradational sedimentary conditions. These primary observations have implications for the 'norm' in pre-vegetation alluvium and confirm that, despite increasing recognition of diversity within Precambrian fluvial systems, classical pre-vegetation motifs of high-energy alluvial flood deposits preserved as "sheet-braided" alluvium are still an archetypal

sedimentary signature in some instances. Using supportive evidence from the Meall Dearg Formation, we recommend that the term “sheet-braided” be used in inverted commas in future studies; this emphasises the polygenetic depositional nature of the 20:1 width:thickness fluvial style, while maintaining the value of the term in the isolation of a key characteristic of pre-vegetation sedimentary architecture.

Keywords: Upper-flow regime; Supercritical; Chute and Pool; Antidune; Humpback cross-stratification; Stoer Group; MISS; “Sheet-braided”

1. THE TORRIDONIAN SANDSTONE AND PRE-VEGETATION ALLUVIUM

The ‘Torridonian Sandstone’ (or, simply ‘the Torridonian’) is the informal stratigraphic name for a >10 km thick succession of Proterozoic siliciclastic strata, overlying the Archean Lewisian gneiss complex, in the Highland region of northwest Scotland (Fig. 1). The Torridonian has been a well-studied unit of British regional stratigraphy for almost 200 years (e.g., MacCulloch, 1819; Sedgwick and Murchison, 1828; Peach et al., 1907). Its historical renown arises from both its wide geographic outcrop extent (200 km north to south; even greater at subcrop ((Blundell et al., 1985; Stein, 1988, 1992; Williams and Foden, 2011)) and status as the oldest unmetamorphosed sedimentary rock in the British Isles. During the last fifty years, numerous studies have concerned themselves with the sedimentary history of the succession (e.g., Selley, 1965; Williams, 1966, 2001; Gracie and Stewart, 1967; Stewart, 1969, 1982; Nicholson, 1993; McManus and Bajabaa, 1998; Owen and Santos, 2014; Ielpi and Ghinassi, 2015; Ielpi et al., 2016; Santos and Owen, 2016), its provenance and geochemistry (e.g., Stewart, 1991; Stewart and Donnellan, 1992; Van de Kamp and Leake, 1997; Young, 1999; Williams and Foden, 2011), and its palaeomagnetic (e.g., Stewart and Irving, 1974; Smith et al., 1983; Williams and Schmidt, 1997) and tectonostratigraphic (Kinnaird et al., 2007) characteristics. More recently, the succession has seen a revival of palaeobiological interest: microfossils extracted from Torridonian mudstones, first described by Teall (1907), have been deemed to the Earth’s oldest

non-marine eukaryotes (Strother et al., 2011; Battison and Brasier, 2012; Brasier et al., 2016) and indirect evidence for early microbial life on land has been described (Prave, 2002; Callow et al., 2011; Strother and Wellman, 2016).

The Torridonian is also of global significance within a sedimentological context; containing some of the most extensive and easily-accessible successions of pre-vegetation alluvial strata worldwide. It is widely appreciated that river processes would have been markedly different before land plant evolution, supported by observations in poorly-vegetated modern catchments (e.g., Schumm, 1968; Fuller, 1985; Corenblit et al., 2015 ; Horton et al., 2017) and in the deep time alluvial stratigraphic record (Cotter, 1978; Davies and Gibling, 2010; Gibling et al., 2014; Davies et al., 2017a). A recent burst of geological investigations into pre-vegetation alluvium has been driven by a demand for a better understanding of economically-significant Precambrian and lower Palaeozoic hydrocarbon reservoirs and placer deposits, a search for terrestrial analogues for extraterrestrial alluvium on planets such as Mars, and context for the fossil record of the earliest life on Earth. A number of these studies have demonstrated the existence of a much greater variability of pre-vegetation fluvial styles than has traditionally been appreciated (e.g., Santos et al., 2014; Marconato et al., 2014; Ielpi and Rainbird, 2016a, 2016b; Santos and Owen, 2016) emphasising that further investigation of these anactualistic sedimentary systems is needed to fully appreciate the diversity of Precambrian alluvium.

This paper contributes new data to the global pool of pre-vegetation studies, through an original sedimentological analysis of the least-studied constituent unit of the Torridonian Sandstone: the Mesoproterozoic Meall Dearg Formation (MDF). Considering the long history of geological investigation into the region, and the number of studies that have focused on the more well-known alluvial formations of the Torridonian (e.g., the Applecross [Selley, 1965; Nicholson, 1993; Owen, 1995; Stewart, 2002; Owen and Santos, 2014; Ielpi and Ghinassi, 2015; Santos and Owen, 2016] and Bay of Stoer [Stewart, 1990; Stewart, 2002; Ielpi et al., 2016] formations), the MDF has remained largely overlooked. This is the first paper to explicitly address the sedimentary characteristics of the MDF, as only three studies have previously considered the

formation: Gracie and Stewart (1967) discussed sedimentary deposits at Enard Bay, Prave (2002) discussed putative microbially-induced sedimentary structures, and Stewart (2002) provided an overview of the MDF as part of a survey of the entire Torridonian. Other studies have overlooked the MDF, potentially because of its limited exposure (cropping out at only four locations; Rubha Réidh, Stoer, Balchladich Bay and Enard Bay) and dissection by the regionally-significant Coigach Fault (Fig. 1). Existing interpretations of the MDF have suggested that it was deposited by a sandy bedload-dominated fluvial system (Gracie and Stewart, 1967; Stewart, 2002). This paper revisits the formation in light of recent sedimentological advances, and discusses: (1) the architectural characteristics of the constituent sand-bodies of the MDF; (2) the spatial distribution of stratification types in accordance to established flow regime models; (3) the variety of preserved bedding plane features within the MDF; and (4) recurring facies that record prevailing sedimentary processes. These novel observations permit the interpretation of the MDF as recording distinct signatures of dominant high-energy alluvial event (and subordinate aeolian) sedimentation, preserved due to exceptional aggradational conditions.

2. STRATIGRAPHIC AND GEOLOGICAL CONTEXT

A detailed stratigraphy for the whole Torridonian is presented in Stewart (2002), and only a brief overview of the stratigraphic context of the MDF is discussed here. The Torridonian Sandstones comprise, from oldest to youngest, the Stoer, Sleat and Torridon groups (Fig. 1C); of which the MDF is the youngest constituent formation of the >2000 m-thick Stoer Group. The MDF succeeds the Bay of Stoer Formation and is unconformably overlain by the lacustrine Diabaig Formation of the Torridon Group. The Bay of Stoer Formation consists of dominantly fluvial, and subordinate interpreted aeolian (Park et al., 2002; Ielpi et al., 2016) sandstones. Specifically, the MDF succeeds the shallow lacustrine Poll a'Mhuilt Member of the Bay of Stoer Formation, apparently conformably. Lithostratigraphic correlation between the scattered outcrops of the MDF is permitted by their common stratigraphic position above the Stac Fada

Member of the upper Bay of Stoer Formation, which comprises a regionally-extensive event bed of meteorite-impact ejecta origin (Amor et al., 2008; Simms, 2015). However, the possibility remains that the units at each locality are not necessarily time equivalents. The MDF has not been directly dated, but its age is stratigraphically bracketed between 1177 ± 5 Ma (Stenian Period of the Mesoproterozoic) and 977 ± 39 Ma (Tonian Period of the Neoproterozoic), based on $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating of the underlying Stac Fada Member and Rb-Sr whole-rock regressions of the overlying Diabaig Formation (Turnbull et al., 1996; Parnell et al., 2011). This age indicates that the MDF was deposited during the Grenvillian Orogeny, along the margins of the supercontinent Rodinia (Rainbird et al., 2012). This deposition on the edge of the Laurentian Shield meant that it largely avoided later Caledonian deformation (Williams and Foden, 2011).

The MDF is interpreted to have been deposited in a narrow rift basin with detritus sourced from local fault scarps (Stewart, 1982, 1990; Rainbird et al., 2001). Palaeomagnetic (Torsvik and Sturt, 1987) and geochemical (Stewart, 1990) data suggest deposition occurred in a semi-arid climate at a palaeolatitude of $10\text{-}20^\circ\text{N}$. A glacial setting was proposed for the lowermost Clachtoll Formation by Davison and Hambrey (1996), but evidence for this was disputed by Stewart (1997) and Young (1999).

3. SEDIMENTOLOGY OF THE MEALL DEARG FORMATION

Facies Associations

Two facies associations (FA) are recognised in strata of the MDF (Fig. 2). The facies associations are mutually exclusive, with FA1 cropping out at Rubha Réidh, Balchladich Bay and Stoer and FA2 at Enard Bay.

3.1. Facies Association 1 (Rubha Réidh, Balchladich Bay and Stoer)

Strata of FA1 form the majority of the exposed MDF, and all of the facies at Rubha Réidh, Balchladich Bay and Stoer. The contiguous Stoer-Balchladich Bay section is 200-300 m thick,

underlain by the Bay of Stoer Formation and unconformably overlain by the Applecross Formation. At Rubha Réidh, the succession is truncated to 100 m thickness, with a faulted lower contact and the Diabaig Formation unconformably overlain above (Stewart, 2002). FA1 consists nearly entirely of sandstone (>99% of total strata). Mudstones (<1%) are restricted to mm-thick, often desiccated, laterally discontinuous layers or intraformational mud clasts. Sandstones are medium-grained, with the exception of the lowest 7 m of stratigraphy at Stoer, where pebbly sandstones occur. Lower bounding surfaces are either flat (Fig. 3B), or drape and preserve an underlying dune topography (Fig. 3C). Erosion between sand-bodies is restricted to localized scours, no more than 50 cm deep. Various stratification types and bedding plane features are present (Table 1). Three-dimensional outcrops permit the identification of both foreset and backset (cross-stratification dipping up local palaeoflow) stratification and foreset dips indicate that palaeoflow was towards 279° (n = 41). The description and interpretation of each stratification type and bedding plane feature are as follows.

3.1.1. Sandstone stratification types

Stratification types in this section are documented in order of progressively decreasing associated flow strength: their relative frequency of occurrence is shown in Figure 2.

3.1.1a. Backset laminae associated with an upstream-dipping scour surface (*Chute and Pool structures*)

Description – Asymmetric scoured surfaces, filled by upstream-inclined cross laminae are present at Rubha Réidh and Stoer (Fig. 4). Backsets truncate against steep, downstream-dipping scoured margins, and are succeeded vertically by horizontal laminations and convex-up bedding. At Stoer, convex-up bedding passes down-flow into horizontal laminations with soft-sediment deformation structures (Fig. 4B).

Interpretation – Comparable features are rarely reported from the rock record (Fralick, 1999; Fielding, 2006; Lowe and Arnott, 2016; Winston, 2016), but are analogous to chute and pool structures formed in laboratory experiments (Alexander et al., 2001; Cartigny et al., 2014).

Chute and pool structures form due to a temporary hydraulic jump within a localized scour when shallow, faster flowing waters (the chute) pass immediately into deeper, slower flowing waters (the pool) (Fielding, 2006). Their relationship with juxtaposed bedforms in the MDF indicate that the pools were filled prior to flow waning to regimes associated with the deposition of antidune stratification and horizontal laminations. High-velocity and turbulent flow conditions account for the association of chute and pool structures with soft-sediment deformation.

3.1.1b. Convex-up bedding containing backset cross-laminae (*Antidunes*)

Description – Convex-up bedding is occasionally associated with otherwise horizontal beds (Fig. 5). Convex-up beds are low-relief (20 – 25 cm), symmetrical and internally characterized by cross-laminae that dip upstream (compared to palaeocurrents from nearby dune cross-stratification). They are solitary and do not form larger concavo-convex sets. Widths of convex-up portions range from 200 – 225 cm.

Interpretation – Symmetrical, convex-up beds with internal upflow-dipping cross-laminae suggest that they formed in the antidune stability field (e.g., Fielding, 2006; Cartigny et al., 2014). Antidune stratification has been produced in experimental flows underneath transient standing waves (e.g., Kennedy, 1963; Alexander et al., 2001), suggesting that standing waves developed in supercritical flow conditions during the deposition of the MDF. Their comparative scarcity compared with horizontal laminations (section 3.1.1c) reflects the transient nature of such flow conditions and the relatively low preservation potential of antidune stratification. Additionally, confident diagnosis of antidune stratification requires full preservation of the bedform under aggrading sedimentation (Cartigny et al., 2014), meaning that the number of identifiable antidune deposits in the MDF is likely an under-representation of their true abundance.

3.1.1c. Horizontal laminations (*Upper plane bed*)

Description – Horizontal laminations constitute the basal parts of the majority of FA1 sand-bodies (>95%) (Fig. 6; Fig. 8). Thin (< 4 mm), ungraded laminae occur in sets 5 – 110 cm thick. Sets are tabular in depositional-dip and strike sections. Underlying bounding surfaces are flat and exhibit no evidence of incision into the underlying bed (at outcrop scale). In large depositional-dip outcrops, planar laminations occasionally transition laterally to low-angle, down-flow dipping cross-stratification (section 3.1.1e).

Interpretation – Horizontal laminations record upper-flow regime plane bedding (Paola et al., 1989). Upward transitions from upper- to transitional upper-flow regime sedimentary structures are interpreted as the product of waning floods. Similarly, down depositional-dip transitions from horizontal laminations to low-angle cross stratification represent lateral decreases in flow strength (upper- to transitional upper-flow) (Fielding, 2006).

3.1.1d. Asymmetrical sigmoidal sets of cross-stratification (*Humpback dunes*)

Description – Cross stratification exhibiting a downflow-divergent sigmoidal geometry is present in multiple sand-bodies at Rubha Réidh (Fig. 6; Fig. 7A). The sigmoidal geometry permits the differentiation of discrete topset, foreset and bottomset elements. Convex-up bed topography is apparent at the top of each set (Fig. 7A); a stratification type referred to as humpback cross-stratification (Saunderson and Lockett, 1983; Fielding, 2006). Sets are up to 2.2 m high and can be traced down depositional-dip for > 65 m (Fig. 6). Ripple marks are frequently preserved in topographic lows associated with preserved convex-up topography (Fig. 6). In three-dimensional sections, it is clear that humpback sets comprise wedge-shaped packages that built out in a westwards direction (Fig. 7B).

Interpretation – Humpback ‘form-sets’ develop when deposition dominates over erosion at flow conditions transitional between the dune stability field and the upper plane bed field (Saunderson and Lockett, 1983). Convex-up bed topography at the top of each set implies that the bedforms are fully preserved (‘form-sets’) (Reesink et al., 2015).

3.1.1e. Low-angle (<20°) cross-stratification (*Transitional upper-flow regime dunes*)

Description – Low angle cross-stratification occurs throughout the MDF (Fig. 8A). Foreset dip angles range from 5° - 15°. In depositional-dip sections, low-angle foresets occasionally merge into horizontal laminations up-flow.

Interpretation – Low-angle cross-stratification develop at flow conditions transitional between dune stability field and upper plane bed stability (Fielding, 2006). Lateral transitions between horizontal laminations and low-angle cross stratification reflect localized variations in flow energy.

3.1.1f. High-angle (>20°) cross-stratification (*Lower flow-regime dunes*)

Description – Planar cross-stratification occurs in solitary sets of 10 - 30 cm thickness. Co-sets of planar cross-stratification do not occur; instead, sets are intercalated with sedimentary structures associated with upper-flow regime flows (most abundantly horizontal laminations) (Fig. 8B). Sets are highly tabular and show minimal lateral thickness changes in both depositional-dip and depositional-strike sections. Trough cross-stratification was only observed at the base of the formation at Stoer (coincident with the only pebbly interval observed in the MDF).

At Rubha Réidh, in instances where cross-bedded units occur at the top of a major sand-body, dune topography is preserved (Fig. 2; Fig. 3A; Fig. 9A). Dunes are spaced 0.5 - 1.5 m apart and have heights of 10 - 30 cm. Abundant ripple marks are superimposed onto the dune microtopography (section 3.1.2a).

Interpretation – The migration of lower-flow regime two- and three-dimensional subaqueous dunes produce planar and trough cross beds respectively. The existence of tabular sets with minimal lateral variation in relief implies that flow depths were consistent across large areas. Co-sets of high-angle cross-stratification are entirely absent, with cross-stratification most

commonly occurring between upper-flow regime sedimentary structures suggesting their deposition relates to waning high-energy floods.

3.1.2. Bedding plane features

In the MDF, ripple marks and other sedimentary surface textures are common on some bedding surfaces, which record the preservation of primary substrates. Sedimentary surface textures exhibit a wide variety of morphologies, due to their formation on substrates that persisted for variable intervals of sedimentary stasis (Davies et al., 2017b). This morphological variability may hamper the determination of whether the textures had a microbial or abiotic origin, so in this section they are classified following the technique described in Davies et al., (2016): Category A structures are demonstrably abiotic in origin; Category Ba is used where circumstantial evidence suggests structures may be biotic, but an abiotic origin cannot be ruled out; Category Ab is used for the opposite situation to this; Category ab is used where there is no clear evidence to support abiotic or biotic origin.

3.1.2a Ripple-Marks

Description – Symmetrical ripple-marks are nearly ubiquitous on each studied planform surface (n = 12) at Rubha Réidh, Balchladich Bay and Stoer (Fig. 9). The largest of these exposed surfaces has an area of >1000 m². Ripple-marks are frequently seen superimposed on top of dune topography, where they have weakly anastomosing sinuous crests which rarely extend > 2 m (Fig. 9A). On flat surfaces which lack dune microtopography, crests are subparallel and extend for > 10 m (Fig. 9B). Ripple-marks record unidirectional flow on individual bedding planes, but a near 360° dispersal is apparent when all rippled surfaces are considered (Fig. 9B). The modal E-W strike-line is perpendicular to the prevailing westward flow ($\theta = 279^\circ$; n = 41). Many ripple marks have clear drainage lines etched into their flanks, indicating emergence and drainage subsequent to their formation (Fig. 10A, 10B). Crests are mostly well-rounded or flat-topped. Sharp crested ripple marks are rare (Fig. 10C), and contain synaeresis cracks within

their troughs (Fig. 10D). Infrequent interference ripple-marks occur (Fig. 10E). Ripple-marks located within dune troughs are often draped by mud (Fig. 10F).

In addition to planform exposures of ripple-marks, trains of ripple crests can be observed within vertical sections (Fig. 6; Fig. 10G). Above humpback dunes, sharp crested ripple-marks are present in dune troughs and form ripple trains which extend laterally for up to 4 m (Fig. 6). In rare instances ripple crests display uneven oversteepening (Fig. 10H).

Interpretation – Symmetrical ripple-marks record bedform stability under low flow regime: representing falling flood stage. Their near-ubiquitous positioning above sand-bodies that contain upper- and transitional-upper flow regime sedimentary structures suggests that flood waters receded to leave pools of standing water across the depositional plain. Their comparatively greater abundance within humpback dune troughs (compared with crests) lends further credence to this notion, suggesting more pervasive pooling of water within pre-existing topographic lows. Variations in ripple-crest strike-line suggest that this ponded water drained and moved in different directions, depending on localized slope and wind conditions. Soft sediment deformation of some ripple crests may have been caused by current drag over the rippled surface during subsequent flooding events. Alternatively the oversteepening may be seismically induced.

3.1.2b Adhesion Marks (A)

Description – Adhesion marks are frequently seen to be superimposed upon ripple-marked surfaces (Fig. 11). They present as 2 – 5 mm wide, 1 – 3 mm high positive epirelief mounds that are irregular in form (i.e., adhesion marks and not adhesion ripples; Kocurek and Fielder, 1982). Their spatial distribution across any given bedding surface is strongly dependent on the associated dune and ripple microtopography (Fig. 11). On dune crests (topographic highs), ripple-marks are densely blanketed by adhesion marks across their crests and troughs (Fig. 11A). Within dune troughs (topographic lows), adhesion marks are only ever restricted to ripple crests, or are absent entirely (Fig. 11B). On flat beds lacking dune microtopography,

adhesion marks occur on both ripple crests and troughs, but are more common on the former (Fig. 11C).

Interpretation – Adhesion marks indicate that water-lain sands were intermittently subaerially-exposed, permitting the accretion of wind-blown sand grains onto moist substrates (Kocurek and Fielder, 1982). Adhesion marks are progressively more common with height above the surface (i.e., most common on ripple crests on dune crests; least common in ripple troughs in dune troughs), indicating that they can be used to locally determine how extensive the recession of pooled water was between flood events. The total absence of adhesion marks in some dune troughs suggests that, in some instances, no subaerial exposure occurred and that pooled water persisted until the subsequent flood event (Fig. 11A-C).

3.1.2c Sinuous shrinkage cracks (*Manchuriophycus*) (Ba)

Description – Sinuous shrinkage cracks were observed at one ripple-marked surface at Rubha Réidh. Cracks are up to 1 cm wide and 25 cm long. They most commonly occur within, and parallel to, ripple troughs, but individual cracks may also cross ripple crests (Fig. 12). They are preserved in positive epirelief, although post-depositional erosion often results in accompanying negative epirelief impressions.

Interpretation – The sinuous shrinkage cracks fit the type description of the “pseudofossil” *Manchuriophycus* (Endo, 1933). *Manchuriophycus* has variously been interpreted as fossilized algae, a burrow structure, or inorganic desiccation crack (see Hantzschel, 1962); though is now more commonly thought a type of microbially-induced sedimentary structure (*sensu* Noffke et al., 2001) arising due to the shrinkage of microbial mats with very high strengths and elasticity (Koehn et al., 2014). In the absence of a mat, grains would more likely have accommodated stress by moving past one another rather than opening cracks (McMahon et al., 2016). If the MDF examples have a microbial origin, their preferential development in ripple troughs would imply that matgrounds were thicker within topographic lows (Schieber, 2007).

Prave (2002) reported similar features ('irregular- to rod-shaped fragments of variable length and curvature concentrated within ripple troughs', p. 813) and interpreted these as fragments of microbially bound sand layers that had been entrained and rolled during ephemeral flows (his Fig. 4A). Surfaces with well-formed *Manchuriophycus* identified during this study also host positive epirelief fragments similar in morphology to the fragments described by Prave (2002) (Fig. 12).

3.1.2d Reticulate Markings (Ba)

Description – Reticulate ridges occur on multiple planform surfaces (Fig. 13A; Fig. 13B). Individual nets are 2 – 6 mm wide and 1 – 2 mm high.

Interpretation – Reticulate markings have modern analogues in cyanobacteria and eukaryotic algae, where they arise from filament tangling (Shepard and Sumner, 2010; Davies et al., 2016).

3.1.2e Serrated margins (ab)

Description – In rare instances, clear serrated margins several millimeters thick separate bedding plane surfaces with and without adhesion marks (Fig. 13C).

Interpretation – Prave (2002) interpreted the serrated margins as remnants of microbially bound layers, where sand grains had adhered to a microbial crust (due to the presence of sticky extracellular polymeric substances and cyanobacterial filaments). Possible alternative abiotic explanations for the margins could include: (1) post-depositional partial erosion of overlying sediment layers; or (2) original patchy distribution of moist sands resulting in localized adhesion.

3.1.2f Desiccated Sandstone (ab)

Description – In rare instances, desiccated polygons overprint ripple marks without a muddy matrix (Fig. 14A). Polygons are 15 - 25 cm wide and a few centimeters deep.

Interpretation – Desiccation cracks only develop in materials with sufficient cohesive strength (e.g., van Mechelen, 2004). Within moist (abiotic) sands, such cohesion can only be attained if grains have high textural maturity (Chavdarian and Sumner, 2011; Glumac et al., 2011). To date, desiccation experiments on clay-poor sand substrates with angular grains have been unsuccessful (Kovalchuk et al., 2016). However, microbiota can increase sand cohesion by stabilizing grains with cyanobacterial filaments and extracellular polymeric substances (e.g., De Bore, 1981) and, in doing so, enable polygon formation (Prave, 2002; Eriksson et al., 2007; Kovalchuk et al., 2016; McMahon et al., 2016). Whilst this is a viable formation mechanism, the absence of proximal microbial fabrics on the desiccated sandstone bed at Rubha Réidh means that no direct evidence for a microbial origin has been conclusively ascertained in this study.

3.1.3 Desiccated Mudstone

Description – The mudstones that account for <1% of FA1 are ubiquitously desiccated, with individual polygons up to 1 m in diameter (Fig. 14B).

Interpretation – Desiccated mudstones result from a reduction in volume as muds dry out when emerged (Bradley, 1933), indicating that all the preserved Meall Dearg mudstones were deposited immediately prior to subaerial exposure.

3.1.4 Interpretation of Facies Association 1 (*High energy alluvial events*)

Sand-bodies at Stoer, Rubha Réidh and Balchladich Bay are interpreted as the deposits of multiple high-energy alluvial flood events. During peak flow, upper-flow regime conditions prevailed (Fielding, 2006), occasionally entering the chute and pool or antidune stability regimes (Alexander et al., 2001; Cartigny et al., 2014). As floods waned, flows progressively operated under transitional upper- and subcritical flow-conditions, resulting in the vertical stacking of sedimentary structures in accordance to decreasing flow velocity (Fig. 2). At Stoer, stratification types are typically limited to intercalated horizontal laminations and planar cross-stratification, with each package the result of an individual flood. Packages at Stoer are rarely

greater than 20 cm thick, implying either shallow flow depths or partial erosion by successive flood events. This is in contrast to the variety of preserved stratification at Rubha Réidh, where hummock form-sets are up to 2.2 m thick and must have been submerged in deeper water during deposition. During high flood stages, it is implicit that the critical flow velocity for coarse-sediment transport was exceeded, so the absence of such sediment grades indicates either: (1) only medium-grained sediment in the primary sediment supply (e.g., due to a significant distance from the sediment source); or (2) bypass of coarser sediment fractions. Variably-striking ripple crestlines are superimposed on nearly all studied sand-bodies reflecting unconfined post-flood pooling of quiescent waters.

Abundant adhesion marks and desiccation cracks indicate intermittent subaerial exposure. The diversity of reticulate markings, *Manchuriophycus*, and other surface textures with ambiguous origin, offer strong circumstantial evidence for microbial colonization of substrates during sedimentary stasis (Schieber, 1999; Prave, 2002; Davies et al., 2016).

No apparent unconformity exists between the MDF and the underlying Bay of Stoer Formation, but the boundary marks a major change in sedimentary lithofacies. Bay of Stoer Formation fluvial facies consist of stacked, lower flow-regime, three-dimensional sedimentary structures (Stewart, 2002; Ielpi et al., 2016), typical of perennial fluvial flow (Bristow, 1987; Best et al., 2003), and are overlain by the shallow lacustrine Poll a'Mhuilt Member (Stewart, 2002). In contrast, MDF deposition occurred as high energy events; a lithofacies shift that probably reflects changes in the regional temperature and seasonality of precipitation (e.g., Fielding, 2006; Lowe and Arnott, 2016), within the low-latitude, semi-arid climate belt where the formation was deposited (Torsvik and Sturt, 1987; Stewart, 1990). Alternatively, the stratigraphic appearance of these features may be a preservational artefact related to changes in basin accommodation, but, as the duration of hiatus at the Poll a' Mhuilt-Meall Dearg boundary is not understood, such a control cannot be confidently assessed.

3.2. Facies Association 2 (*Enard Bay*)

The 150-250 m thick MDF succession at Enard Bay overlies the Poll a' Mhuilt Member (not exposed in continuous coastal section) and is unconformably overlain by the Diabaig Formation (Stewart, 2002). Due to lithofacies dissimilarity, Gracie and Stewart (1967) and Stewart (2002) did not correlate these strata with those described in Section 3.1., but the locality is now the British Geological Survey reference section for the MDF (BGS Lexicon of Named Rock Units [online] accessed 2017). Here, the Enard Bay strata are recorded as Facies Association 2. FA2 deposits are near-ubiquitously composed of fine- or medium-grained sandstones (Fig. 2; Fig. 15A; Fig. 17B). No mudstones were observed in this study. Planar cross-beds occur in sets 1 – 5 m thick, intercalated with laterally extensive planar beds up to 2.8 m thick (Fig. 15A; Fig. 15B). These sedimentary characteristics indicate an aeolian origin for FA2, which was likely deposited coevally to the FA1 alluvial deposits. Although an aeolian interpretation was previously discarded by Stewart (2002) on the basis that 'convex upward aeolian reactivation surfaces comparable in size with those figured by McKee (1967) were not observed' (p. 72), an absence of such features is not diagnostic proof against aeolian deposition. Two sedimentary facies are described, in support of an aeolian origin: [1] Large-scale planar cross-bedded; and [2] Planar-bedded. These facies are exclusive of the southernmost outcrop currently mapped as MDF; a singular exposure of occasionally pebbly, coarse-grained, cross-bedded sandstone separated from the described succession by 250 m (Krabbendam, 2012). This c. 5 metre-high and c. 30 metre-wide partially exposed outcrop forms a prominent small knoll, apparently faulted into contact with the rest of the MDF at Enard Bay (Fig. 16). Given the dissimilarity of its facies to the remainder of the succession, the inability to confirm a genetic relationship with the rest of the MDF strata at Enard Bay, and the local presence of faulted slivers of pebbly sandstones of the Applecross Formation, the exposure is here considered most likely to be a previously unrecognized outcrop of the latter formation. However, even if the outcrop records a basal pebbly fluvial facies with the remainder of the local MDF, this lithology is never seen to be interbedded with the overlying aeolian facies.

3.2.1 Large-scale planar cross-bedded sandstones (*Aeolian dunes*)

Description – Large-scale planar cross-bedding occurs within fine- to medium-grained well-rounded arkosic arenites. Cross-beds occur in sets of 1.2 – 5 m thickness (Fig. 15A), which are planar in depositional-dip sections (Fig. 15B) and curved in depositional-strike sections (Fig. 15C). Curved foresets demonstrate palaeoflow spreads of up to 40° across individual sets (Fig. 15D, Fig. 15E), although the dispersal does not detract from the highly-unimodal WSW-directed stacking of dune foresets ($\theta = 248^\circ$, $n = 201$). Individual sets are up to 40 m wide, with typical angles of climb between 15 – 25° (maximum 34°). Individual foresets are characterized by 1 – 4 mm thick, steeply dipping cross laminae with subtle inverse grading (Fig. 17A) or planar laminae with no discernible grain-size trends (Fig. 17B). Cross-bedded sets are typically bound by planar bedded sandstones (see Section 3.2.2; Fig. 15A; Fig. 15B). When planar-beds are absent, dune sets are separated by low-angle, erosional reactivation surfaces (Fig. 18A).

Interpretation – The presence of fine- to medium-grained sandstones with well-rounded grains, arranged in cross-strata sets that are composed of cross-laminae (grainflow) and planar laminae (grainfall) suggests that the planar cross-bedded facies represent aeolian dune deposits (e.g., Hunter, 1977; Kocurek, 1981, 1996). High dispersal of palaeoflow measurements across individual dune sets, and curved crest lines (Fig. 15C) suggest that the dunes were arcuate.

3.2.2 Planar-bedded sandstones (*Aeolian interdunes*)

Description – Planar-bedding occurs in packages of fine- and subordinate medium-grained arkosic arenites, 0.1 – 2.4 m thick, and display near ubiquitous pin-stripe lamination (Fig. 17D). Adhesion lamination is uncommon (Fig. 17E). Planform surfaces are largely featureless, but sometimes contain adhesion marks (Fig. 17F) or, rarely, poorly developed ripple marks ($n = 4$) exhibiting a near 90° spread of strike lines.

Within the planar-bedded facies, one known example of a coarse-grained, apparently massive channelized sand-body incises into a 2.4 m thick planar-bedded package (Fig. 18B). Exposure

constraints restrict full dimensions from being determined, but the preserved sand-body is at least 9 m wide and has a relief of 1.5 m.

Interpretation – Planar-bedded facies are interpreted as aeolian interdunes. Pin-stripe lamination and climbing ripple stratification can form by aeolian ripple migration under aggrading conditions (Fryberger et al., 1988; Hunter, 1977). Adhesion marks record moist interdune surfaces. The interpreted interdune packages are comparatively thinner (predominantly <1 m, maximum 2.4 m) and less laterally extensive than dune surfaces. The channelized sand-body may be (the only) evidence for fluvial deposition in FA2, but the absence of internal structure forbids further interpretation. If fluvial in origin, it differs from the FA1 alluvium at Rubha Réidh, Balchladich Bay and Stoer through its coarser grain size and presence of channel margins.

3.3. Mutual exclusion of aeolian and fluvial deposits

The mutual geographic exclusion of the aeolian facies association at Enard Bay (FA2) and fluvial facies association at Rubha Réidh, Balchladich Bay and Stoer (FA1) is not unexpected. In many modern mixed fluvial-aeolian systems, there is a high propensity for fluvial flood-reworking of neighbouring aeolian dune deposits (e.g., Kocurek and Nielsen, 1986; Langford, 1989), biasing the resultant sedimentary record towards alluvial dominance. This preservation bias may have been particularly acute in pre-vegetation systems, when plant-related factors that can buffer against reworking (such as sediment binding and baffling by roots, and the reduction of near-surface flow velocities by above-ground structures) were absent (Tirsgaard and Øxnevad, 1998; Rodriguez et al., 2014). Furthermore, wind-blown sands may have been more readily deflated from the alluvial realm in the absence of vegetation (Dalrymple et al., 1985; Lancaster and Baas, 1998; Mountney, 2004). Deflation may also have been locally promoted by a low groundwater table (as suggested by the absence of wet interdune facies in the MDF) (Fryberger et al., 1988; Kocurek and Havhom, 1993; Tirsgaard and Øxnevad, 1998). In such a scenario, the aeolian strata at Enard Bay would represent exceptional preservation of deposits that were originally

more common when the MDF depositional environments were active; their absence at Rubha Réidh, Balchladich Bay and Stoer reflecting the biasing effects of high-energy flood events. The limited outcrop of the MDF at Enard Bay does not permit a robust explanation for their exceptional preservation to be determined, but any one of a number of potential preservation mechanisms may have been responsible (e.g., relating to climate, sediment supply, rate of dune migration or accommodation space generation; Mountney, 2012).

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Architectural analysis in outcrop of limited exposure

Where extensive along-strike and down-dip exposure of alluvial strata exists, architectural-element analysis (e.g., Miall, 1985; Long, 2011) can be a powerful conceptual tool for elucidating geomorphic and planform components of pre-vegetation river systems (e.g., Long, 2006; Ielpi and Rainbird, 2015). However, such outcrop quality is not universal to all pre-vegetation alluvial successions. The MDF provides a useful case-study in the importance of taking a conservative approach by making interpretations of alluvial strata based only on observable geological phenomena in the field. The formation contains sufficient primary sedimentary geological signatures to conclusively affirm its deposition by high-energy floods, but its outcrop quality and accessibility is unsuited for any robust interpretation of fluvial planform. In this discussion, we emphasise (1) that the outcrop quality of the MDF is not unusual for strata of Mesoproterozoic age and that the use of succession-scale architectural analysis on this unit, or similarly-exposed units, is inappropriate; and (2) in instances such as this, the term “sheet-braided” (used in inverted commas, and only when diagnostically-applicable) is useful descriptive nomenclature, confirming the distinct nature of pre-vegetation alluvium.

4.1.a. Limitations of determining alluvial architectural style in the Meall Dearg Formation

The MDF is unsuited for succession-scale architectural analysis due to the nature of its outcrop. Its maximum along-strike exposure is 50 metres at Enard Bay and 140 metres at Stoer. These maximum exposures are dissected by multiple local faults and joints, rendering it rarely possible to trace stratigraphic bounding surfaces along their original extent. Large-scale

depositional architectures are unsuited for interpretation from satellite imagery, as has been undertaken for older units of the Stoer Group (Ielpi et al., 2016), for three reasons: (1) The strata are tectonically inclined between 25-30° and have a NNE strike (Fig. 19A). Vertical observation of beds that crop out obliquely in plan-view greatly exaggerates true bed thickness and means that successive bounding surfaces are laterally offset; (2) Coastal exposure disappears underneath a variably deep cover of post-glacial till and peat bog within metres east of the coast (Fig. 19B). Topographic mapping cannot trace beds beneath this drift as its relief is not influenced by the depositional stratigraphic architecture of the underlying, lithologically homogenous formation; (3) Key stratigraphic contacts are variably obscured by local jointing, weathering, beach debris, vegetation, and intertidal algae. We deliberately refrain from making any inference of ancient fluvial planform for the MDF as any such ‘interpretation’ would be speculative and methodologically distinct from the robust interpretation of high-energy flood deposition, made from primary field observation.

4.1.b. “Sheet-braided” fluvial style: a polygenetic architectural signal of Precambrian alluvium

While the outcrop quality of the MDF prohibits a refined architectural assessment of the unit, the exposure is still of sufficient quality to recognize that its constituent alluvial sandbodies exhibit an almost uniform “sheet-braided” architecture (*sensu* Cotter, 1978). The term “sheet-braided” was introduced by Cotter (1978) for individual genetic units of sandstone with width:depth ratios greater than 20:1. His original definition explicitly stated that “sheet-braided” was a subdivisional classification of the ‘fluvial style’ of an alluvial sedimentary package (Cotter, 1978, p. 364), and that ‘fluvial style’ referred to the character of an alluvial *rock sequence* (Cotter, 1978, p. 362), independent of any conceptual models of fluvial planform for the depositional environment of a given unit. This strict definition of the term was maintained in the three decades after Cotter’s (1978) work, and was reiterated by Davies & Gibling (2010) and Davies et al. (2011). Recently, however, the term has increasingly become conflated as having geomorphological significance for original fluvial planform, and a number of papers have

referred to 'sheet-braided rivers' (e.g., Ielpi and Ghinassi, 2015; Ielpi and Rainbird, 2016b; de Almeida et al., 2016). The inclusion of the word 'braided' in Cotter's (1978) term is thus unfortunate, due to the confusion between geomorphology and sedimentology that has subsequently arisen.

In response to this conflation of geomorphological form and sedimentary product, a number of papers have argued against the predominance of "sheet-braided" Precambrian alluvium, on the basis that special circumstances of outcrop and exposure may permit a more refined interpretation of fluvial planform during deposition (e.g., Ielpi and Rainbird, 2015, 2016a,b; Santos and Owen, 2016). However, even when such interpretations are possible, most examples of Precambrian alluvium remain "sheet-braided" *sensu* Cotter (1978) (e.g., minimum 30:1 aspect ratio foreset bar sandbodies; Ielpi and Rainbird, 2016b; 20:1 to 80:1 channel sandbodies; Ielpi and Ghinassi, 2015). Such "sheet-braided" fluvial style is clearly polygenetic: applying the original definition, examples are known where the architecture has developed deposited by highly mobile channels (e.g., Todd and Went, 1991; Rainbird, 1992; McMahon et al., 2017), exceptionally wide channels (e.g., Fuller, 1985; Nicholson, 1993), deep channelled drainage (Ielpi and Rainbird, 2016b; Ielpi et al., 2016), unconfined flow (e.g., Winston, 2016) and high-energy flood events (Tirsgaard and Øxnevad, 1998; this study).

Despite these issues, we contend that the term still has value, providing that it is used as a passive descriptor of architectural properties rather than carrying implications of palaeoenvironmental setting. The first factor in support of the retention of the term is that in many natural geological outcrops, such as those of the MDF, the low diagnostic bar for the identification of "sheet-braided" architecture (>20:1 aspect ratio) means that this architectural characteristic can still be identified or rejected, even when more refined architectural interpretation is prohibited. The second factor in support of its retention is that the characteristic retains importance as a key distinction between alluvium deposited before and after the evolution of land plants: the ubiquity of "sheet-braided" alluvium in Precambrian strata means that it may be mistakenly perceived as a bucket term, but its true merit lies in the

converse fact that there are no known examples of post-Silurian alluvial successions that are dominated by such architecture. Thus, in a holistic view of alluvium through time, the Precambrian dominance and Phanerozoic diminishment of “sheet-braided” alluvium attests to the significance of the evolution of a terrestrial flora in promoting a wider diversity of preserved alluvial phenomena.

In order to maintain these clear practical and conceptual uses, we propose that the term “sheet-braided” should continue to be applied in studies of ancient alluvium, but that it should be used in inverted commas in future studies, in recognition of the fact that the term is applicable to a variety of polygenetic alluvial strata and is not necessarily diagnostic of a braided fluvial planform at the time of deposition. Despite the potentially confusing inclusion of the word ‘braided’ in the term, its continued usage is preferential to the adoption of new terminology because: (1) the term “sheet-braided” is already entrenched in published literature; (2) any new terminology would require reference to the ‘sheet’ form of the strata, but sedimentological terminology invoking this term is already congested and requires careful application (North & Davison, 2012); and (3) the inherent fuzziness of the rock record, the vagaries of outcrop exposure and preservation, and the need for revision of concepts as new observations are made, mean that the science of sedimentary geology is necessarily pragmatic in its terminology: there is strong precedent for the retention of terms that no longer carry the implicit interpretation apparent in their wording (e.g., synaeresis cracks (McMahon et al., 2016), the sedimentary structure ‘Kinneyia’ (Davies et al., 2016), various ichnological and ichnofacies terms (Minter et al., 2016)). We emphasise that the term should always be used in conjunction with more detailed analysis when outcrop quality permits and that it is not exclusive of other, more refined classification schemes (e.g., Krynine, 1948; Friend et al., 1979, Friend, 1984; Gibling, 2006).

Improved adoption of the term “sheet-braided” in its original sense (Cotter, 1978) will promote the comparability of different studies, paving the way for a better understanding of the truly unique characteristics of pre-vegetation alluvium and the Palaeozoic transition away from “sheet-braided” ubiquity. A better understanding of the global and stratigraphic distribution of

“sheet-braided” alluvium will potentially shed light on the extrinsic factors that determined why this *fluvial style* was apparently such a common geological signature of a variety of different pre-vegetation *fluvial systems*.

4.2. Aggradation and stasis during deposition permit the identification of high-energy flood events

Preserved Meall Dearg stratification types and sedimentary surface textures have enabled the identification of high-energy flood events, but this interpretation was only permitted because the strata contain direct evidence for: (1) upper-flow regime bedforms deposited by rapidly decelerating flows under highly aggrading bed conditions; and (2) bedding plane records of intervals of sedimentary stasis.

Upper-flow regime bedforms such as antidunes have traditionally been considered to be transient sedimentary features, with limited long-term preservation potential (e.g., Reid & Frostick, 1994). However, they can be preserved, unmodified, when the rate of deceleration does not permit bedforms to equilibrate with flow regime (McKee et al., 1967; Alexander and Fielding, 1997; Alexander et al., 2001); conditions that may have been more frequent during Earth history than has traditionally been assumed (Fielding, 2006). The stacking of stratification types recording progressively lower-flow regime conditions, as can be seen in the MDF, is attributable to such conditions of rapid sediment fall-out during falling flood stages. The preservation of these signatures, in addition to the full preservation of convex lamina sets within antidunes, attests to high rates of bed aggradation during sedimentation (Alexander and Fielding, 1997; Fielding, 2006; Cartigny et al., 2014).

The exceptional aggradational preservation of antidunes and related bedforms provides direct evidence that supercritical flow conditions developed during alluvial deposition, but cannot determine whether such conditions were perennial or whether they instead reflect discrete

high-energy flood events. The determination of event deposition requires separate evidence that the sedimentary system repeatedly reverted to background conditions of low flow regime or sedimentary stasis (neither deposition nor erosion; Tipper, 2015) subsequent to the development of supercritical flow. In the MDF, the packages of sediment revealing supercritical flow are sandwiched between strata that preserve bedding plane evidence for prolonged intervals of sedimentary stasis. Such features include sedimentary surface textures of both abiotic (adhesion marks and desiccation cracks) and likely microbial origin (e.g., reticulate marks, *Manchuriophycus*), analogous to modern features that develop during sedimentary stasis in ephemeral streams (Davies et al., 2017b). In order for such original substrate features to have become preserved in the sedimentary record, the succeeding flows must have lacked the capacity to erode the underlying substrate. In sparsely-vegetated modern and ancient ephemeral alluvial settings, rapidly aggraded sediment piles can change the locus of subsequent sedimentary events, thus escaping erosional truncation (Field, 2001; Cain and Mountney, 2009). In the MDF, evidence for such conditions can be seen in the way in which bounding surfaces are rarely erosional; succeeding packages of strata, most often floored with upper-flow regime elements, are deposited directly above preserved topography (Fig. 3). This indicates that, despite the surpassing of a critical threshold for the deposition of upper flow bedforms, the critical threshold for erosion of underlying strata was not exceeded. The only erosional contacts in the entire succession are restricted to laterally discontinuous <50 cm scour-cuts. These characteristics of the MDF suggest that highly aggrading bed conditions can enhance the preservation potential of strata recording sedimentary stasis, in addition to supercritical bedforms.

5. CONCLUSION

The spatial distribution of stratification types and bedding plane features across the Mesoproterozoic Meall Dearg Formation indicate deposition by high energy alluvial events and, subordinately, as aeolian dunes. The alluvial and aeolian sedimentary facies are mutually

exclusive: potentially suggesting aeolian sediments were only preserved in regions less prone to reworking by alluvial activity. The “sheet-braided” alluvial sandstones contain a variety of stratification types relating to upper-flow (chute and pool structures, antidune stratification, horizontal laminations), transitional upper-flow (humpback cross-stratification, low-angle cross stratification) and lower flow-regime conditions (planar cross-stratification, trough cross-stratification, ripple marks). Bedding surfaces separating major sand-bodies include primary substrates that host desiccation cracks, adhesion marks and putative microbial sedimentary surface textures (e.g., *Manchuriophycus*, reticulate marks), which developed during prolonged intervals of sedimentary stasis. The vertical stacking of sedimentary structures in accordance with decreasing associated flow velocity, as well as evidence of periodic emergence and non-deposition, suggests event sedimentation during episodic floods. This degree of interpretation was only achievable due to specific sedimentary conditions at the time of deposition; namely the combination of (1) rapidly decelerating flows acting under aggrading bed conditions; and (2) intervals of non-deposition, during which primary sedimentary surface textures were imparted onto the substrate. Confidence in the interpretation of these depositional processes was attainable despite the fact that the outcrop quality of the Meall Dearg Formation renders it unsuitable for detailed architectural analysis. In order to promote further robust interpretations from pre-vegetation alluvium of limited outcrop extent, we suggest that the term “sheet-braided” (in inverted commas) continues to be applied or rejected, in order to ensure that the nature of pre-vegetation alluvium may be assessed from worldwide outcrops of varying quality, without recourse to over-interpretation. The depositional characteristics of the Meall Dearg Formation are in line with classical facies models for pre-vegetation alluvium, but we emphasise that our observations do not reveal universal characteristics of Precambrian rivers: they reflect one of a multitude of depositional conditions that could lead to the deposition of “sheet-braided”, pre-vegetation alluvium.

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1017 Figure 1. (A) Geological map of the informal Torridonian Supergroup; (B) Higher resolution maps of MDF
1018 locations of study; (C) Stratigraphic column of the stratigraphy of the NW Scottish Highlands.

1019 Figure 2. Representative stratigraphic logs of Facies Associations 1 and 2. Sr = ripple marks.

1020 Figure 3. (A) Planform surfaces at Rubha Réidh. The microtopography of the surface is dictated by the
1021 underlying lithofacies. If horizontal-laminations (Sh) comprise the topmost lithofacies of the underlying
1022 sand-body, topography is flat (B). If dune cross-stratification comprise the topmost lithofacies of the
1023 underlying sand-body, dune microtopography is preserved (C). Each planform surface is near
1024 ubiquitously covered in ripple marks.

1025 Figure 4. Possible chute and pool structures at: (A) Rubha Réidh; (B) Stoer (inaccessible cliff exposure).
1026 Upstream-dipping bedding truncates against the steeper, down-flow dipping surfaces ('Pool'). Convex up
1027 bedding passes over topographic high ('Chute').

1028 Figure 5. (A) Solitary antidune stratification, with backset cross-bedding dipping against prevailing
1029 palaeoflow; (B) Convex-up bedding possibly representative of antidune stratification. (Both images from
1030 Rubha Réidh)

1031 Figure 6. Architectural panel of Meall Dearg outcrop (Rubha Réidh).

1032 Figure 7. (A) Humpback cross-stratification at Rubha Réidh; (B) Three-dimensional exposures show the
1033 westward outbuilding of wedge-shaped humpback cross-stratified packages. Sh = horizontal-laminations;
1034 Sl = Low-angle cross-stratification; Sr = Ripple marks

1035 Figure 8. (A) Low-angle cross-stratification at Balchladich Bay (Sl); (B) Alternating sets of horizontal-
1036 laminated (Sh) and planar cross-stratified (Sp) sandstones at Stoer.

1037 Figure 9. (A) Ripple marks superimposed onto dune topography; (B) Planar surface with ripple marks

1038 Figure 10. Morphology of preserved ripple-marks: (A) Drainage marks etched in flanks of ripple marks;
1039 (B) Sharp crested ripple crests; (C) Synaeresis cracks in ripple troughs; (D) Interference ripple marks; (E)
1040 Mud draped ripple marks within dune trough; (F) Ripple marks preserved in vertical section; (G)
1041 Oversteepened ripple marks; (H) Desiccated mudstones; (i) Desiccated polygons overprinting rippled
1042 sandstone, no mud preserved. All photos from Rubha Réidh.

1043 Figure 11. Schematic illustration and photographs of adhesion mark distribution across Meall Dearg
1044 fluvial facies.

1045 Figure 12. Examples of *Manchuriophycus* at Rubha Réidh. Fragments of possible '*Manchuriophycus*'
1046 highlighted in red.

1047 Figure 13. Possible microbial sedimentary surface textures at Rubha Réidh: (A, B) Reticulate markings
1048 preserved at Rubha Réidh; (C) Clear margin separating sandstone with and without adhesion marks.

1049 Figure 14. (A) Desiccated sandstone surface; (B) Desiccated mudstone surface. Both Rubha Réidh

1050 Figure 15. (A) Intercalated planar cross-stratified dunes and planar-bedded interdunes at Enard Bay.
1051 Person is 187 cm. Restored to horizontal; (B) Aeolian dune geometry in depositional-dip sections; (C)
1052 Aeolian dune geometry in depositional-strike sections; (D) Large scale arcuate aeolian dune-forms; (E)
1053 Palaeoflow dispersal across an individual aeolian dune-form. All Enard Bay.

1054 Figure 16. Exposure of occasionally pebbly, coarse-grained, cross-bedded sandstone apparently faulted
1055 into contact with the rest of the Meall Dearg Formation at Enard Bay

1056 Figure 17. Sedimentary structures at Enard Bay: (A) Cross laminae in dune facies (interpreted grainflow
1057 deposits). Restored to horizontal; (B) Textural and mineralogical character of dune facies as observed in
1058 thin-sectioned samples under polarized light (C) Planar laminations in dune facies (interpreted grainfall
1059 deposits); (D) Wind-ripple horizontal laminae define pin-stripe laminations; (E) Adhesion warts
1060 preserved on interdune surface; (F) Possible adhesion lamination in interdune facies. Photographs A – D
1061 are not restored to horizontal.

1062 Figure 18. (A) Dune sets separated by low-angle, erosional reactivation surfaces (dashed line). Person is
1063 187 cm; (B) Channel-body incising into 2.4 m thick planar-bedded package (Enard Bay).

1064 Figure 19. Limitations of Meall Dearg Formation coastal exposures for determining large-scale
1065 depositional architecture: (A) Tectonic dip (25-30°) renders the exposure unsuitable for interpretation
1066 from satellite imagery because surficial cross-sectional exposure of beds is oblique to land surface; (B)
1067 Coastal exposure disappears beneath a variably deep drift cover of post-glacial till and peat bog, making it

1068 impossible to trace bedding for greater than 140 m. Photograph restored to horizontal. Meall Dearg
1069 outcrop highlighted in green in both photographs.

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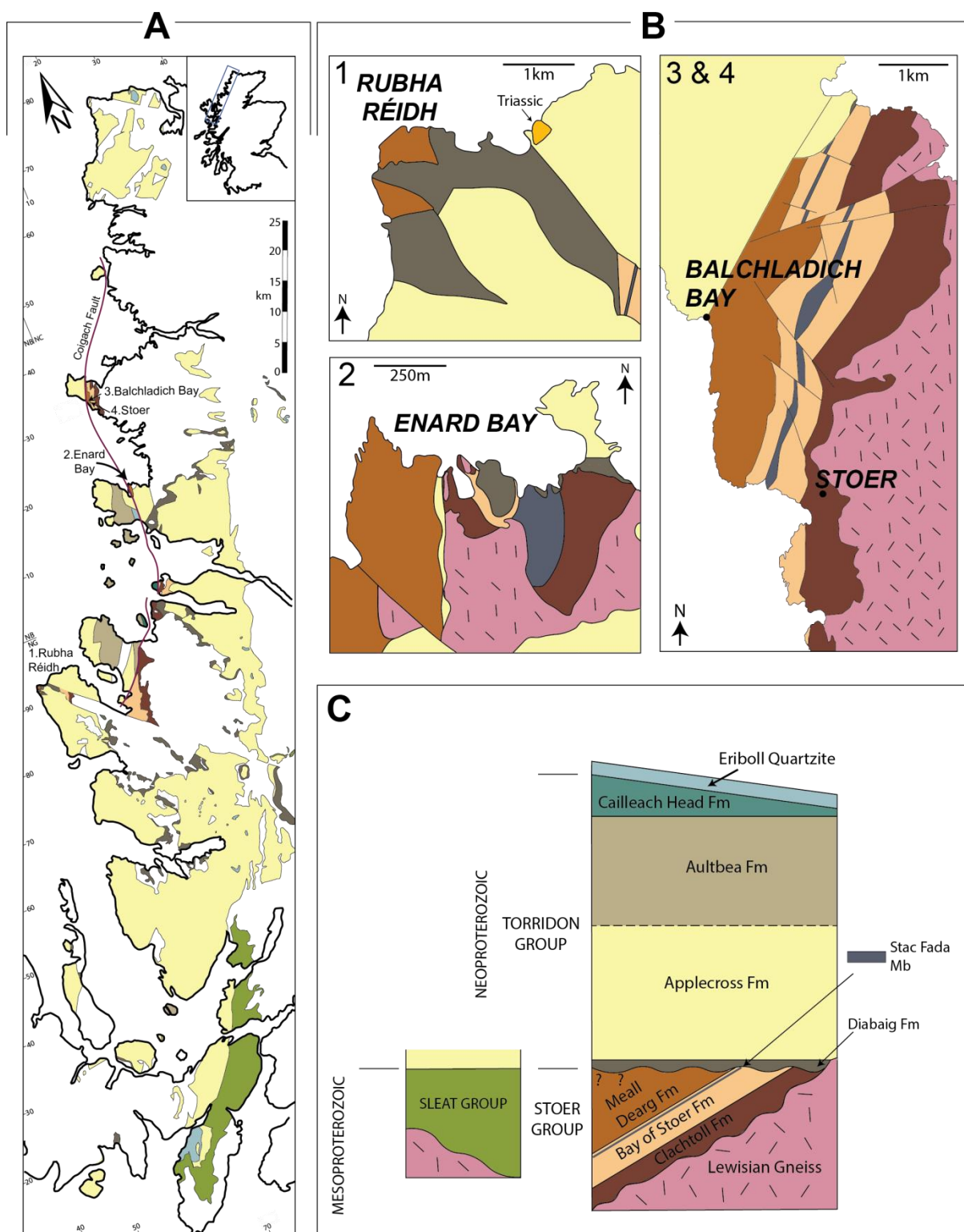
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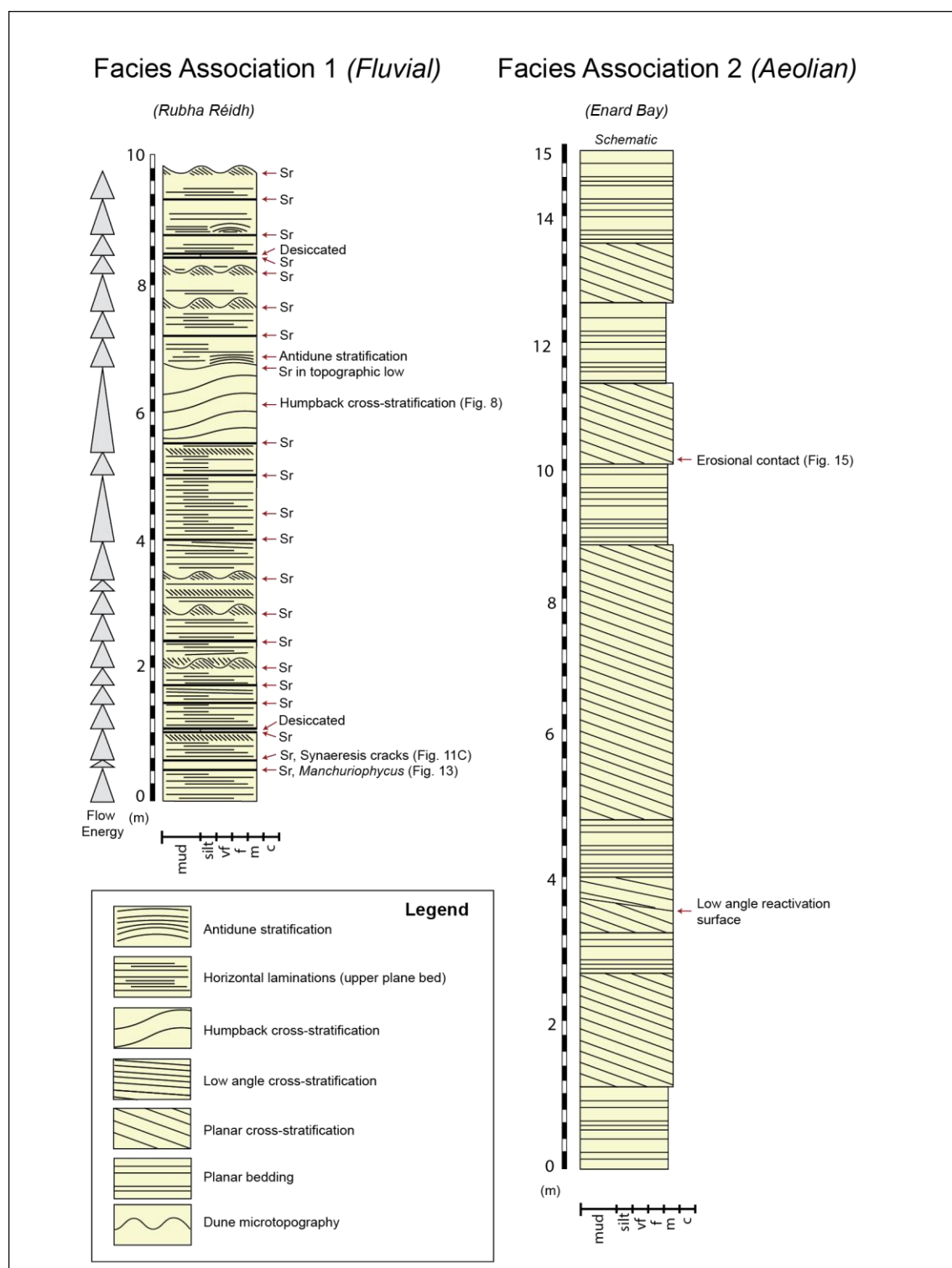
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1 **Fig. 1**



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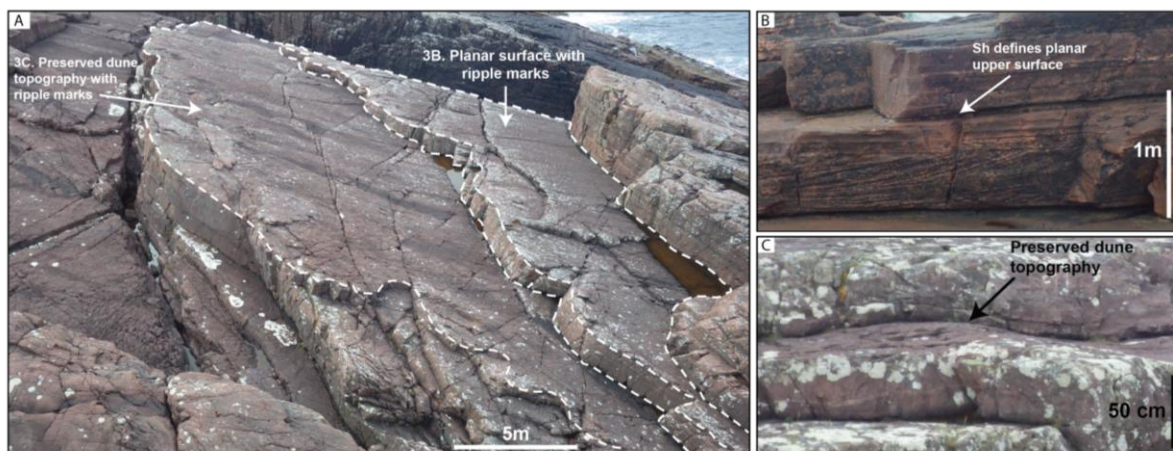
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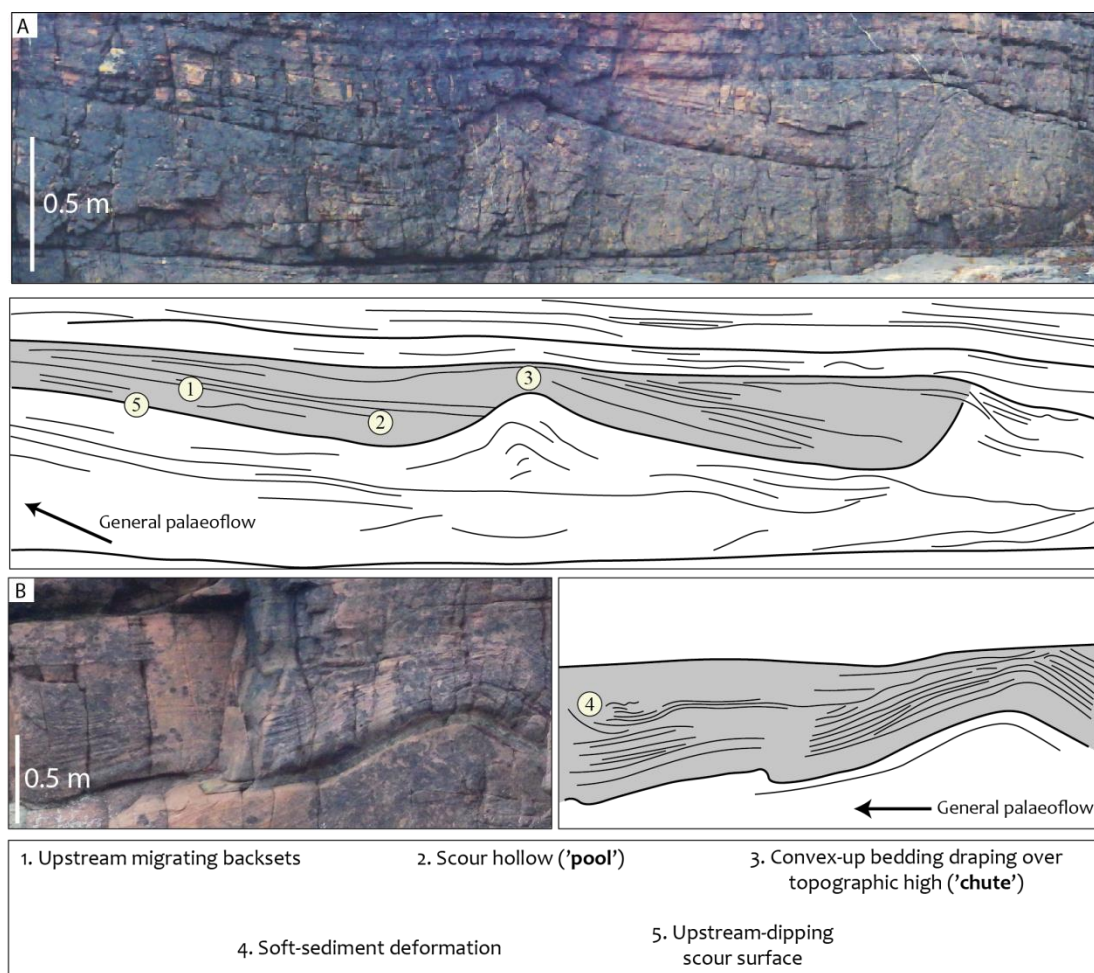
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13 **Fig. 3**



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15 **Fig. 4**

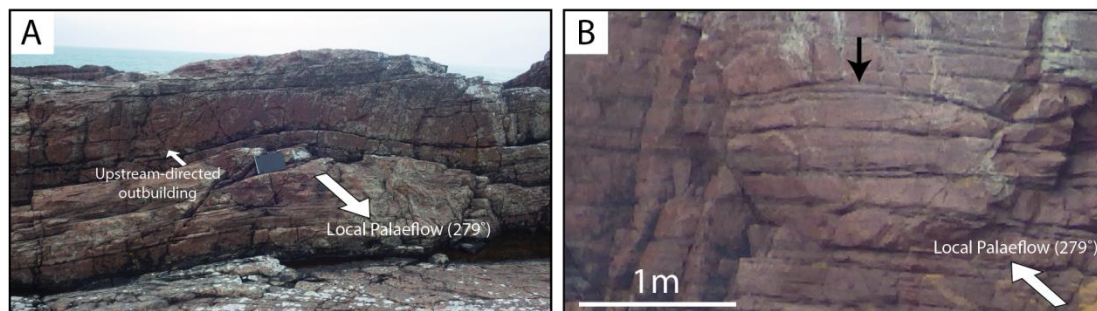


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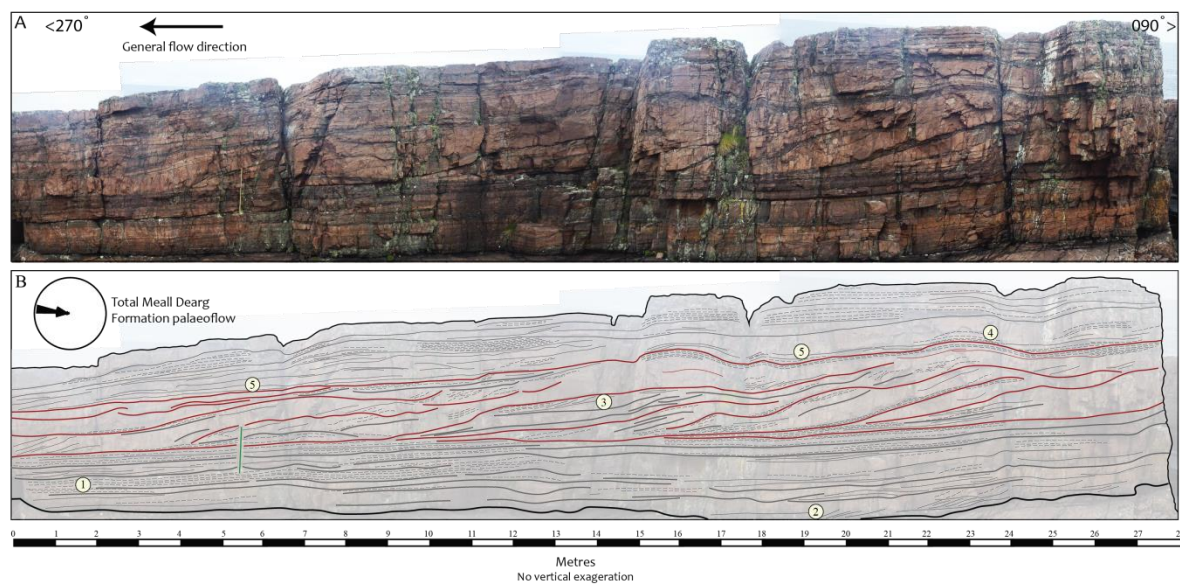
19 **Fig. 5**



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22 **Fig. 6**



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24 **Fig. 6 (cont)**

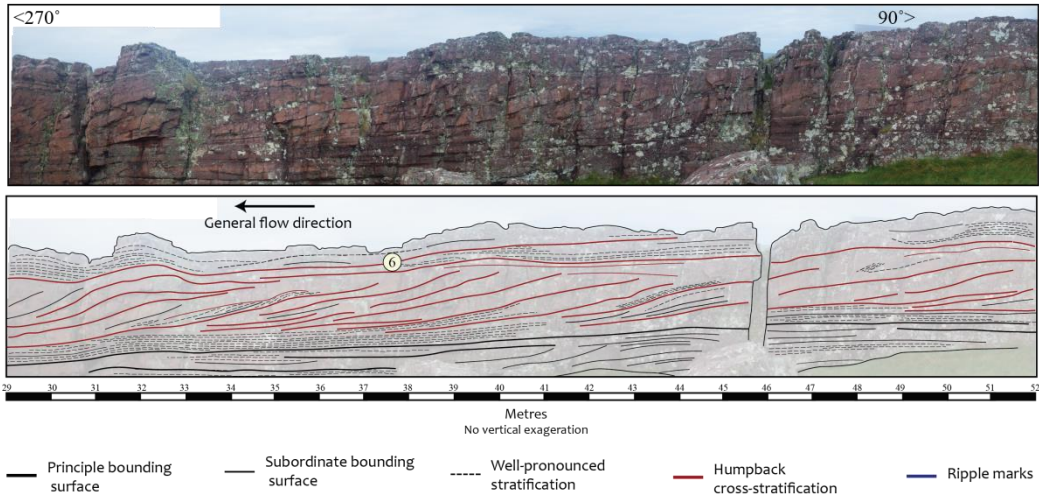
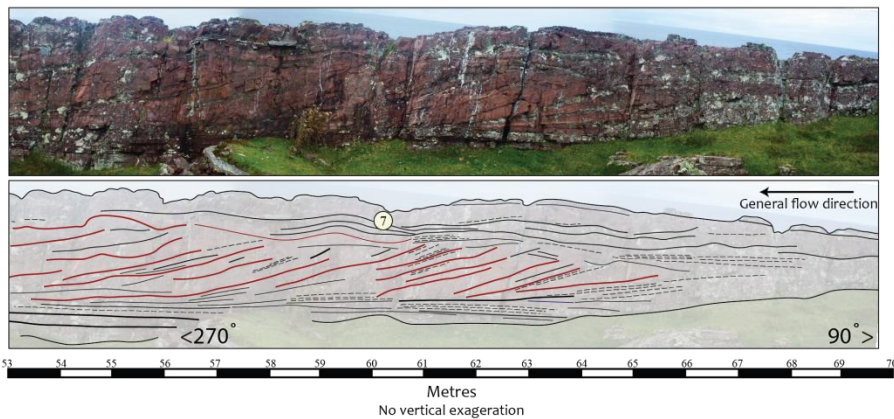
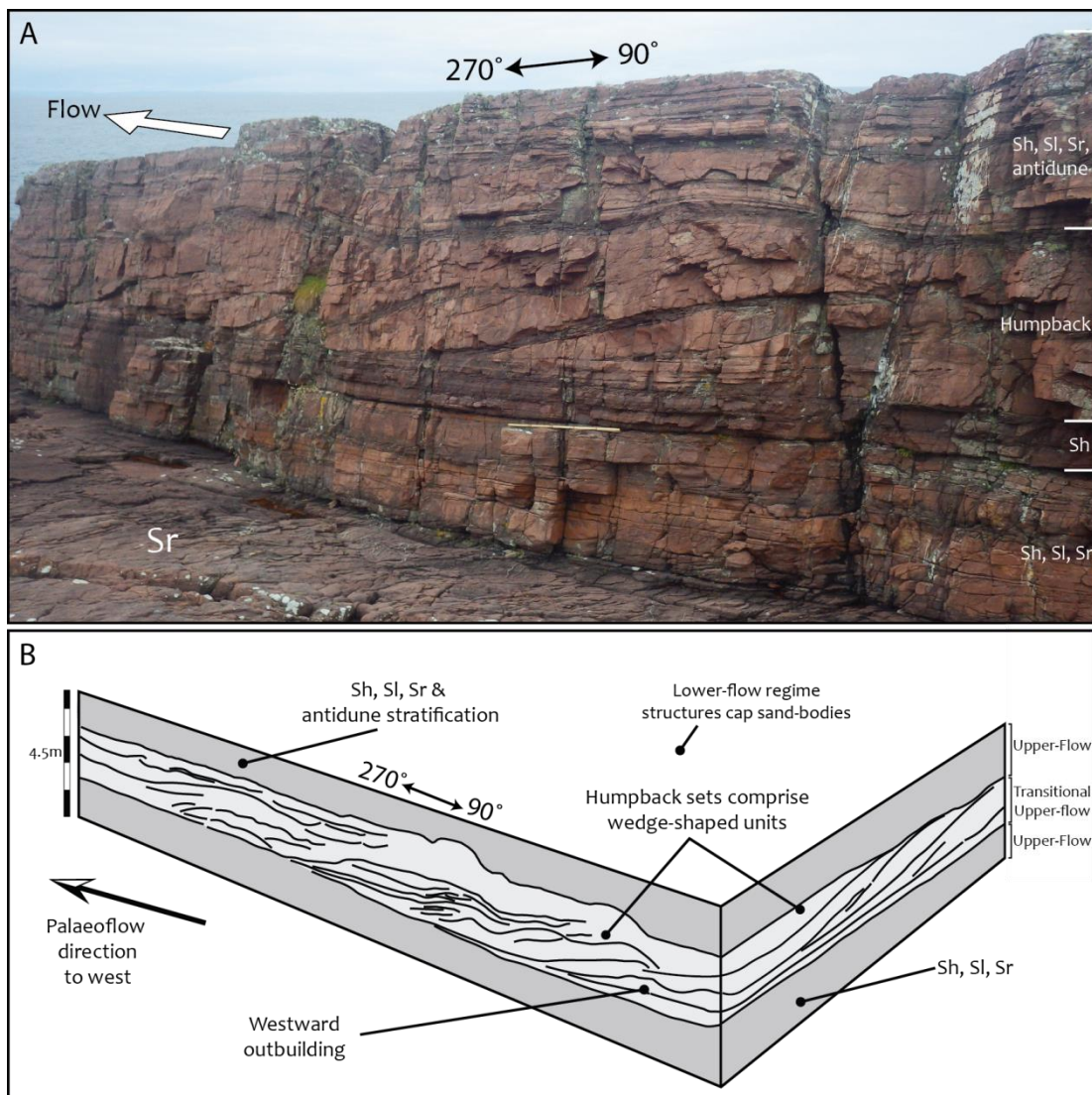


Fig. 6cont

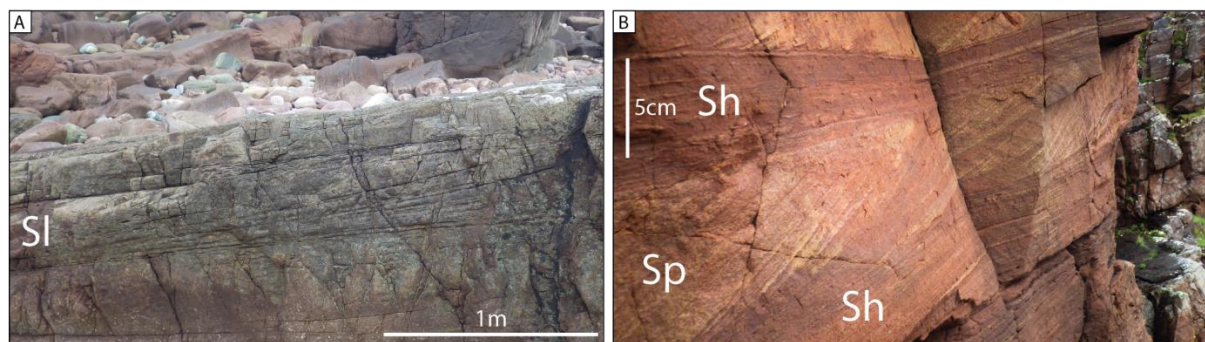


1. Sets of horizontal laminations organised within a tabular package. Bottom sets of internal packages dip gently down-flow
2. Lower flow regime cross-stratification are restricted to isolated sets and frequently have top surfaces eroded by horizontal laminations
3. Fig. 7: Humpback cross-stratification. Convex-up bed topography constitutes a form set which grades down-flow (west) into a relatively large foreset and in turn into an extensive, flat-laminated bottomset
4. Low relief, convex-upward, largely symmetrical bedding with backset cross-stratification are interpreted as antidune stratification
5. Above humpback cross-stratification, ripple marks are preserved in troughs only, where water would have pooled during waning flow conditions
6. Horizontal laminated package thins downstream and transitions into humpback cross-stratification
7. Convex-up, symmetrical antidune with backset cross-bedding evolving from underlying humpback cross-stratified package



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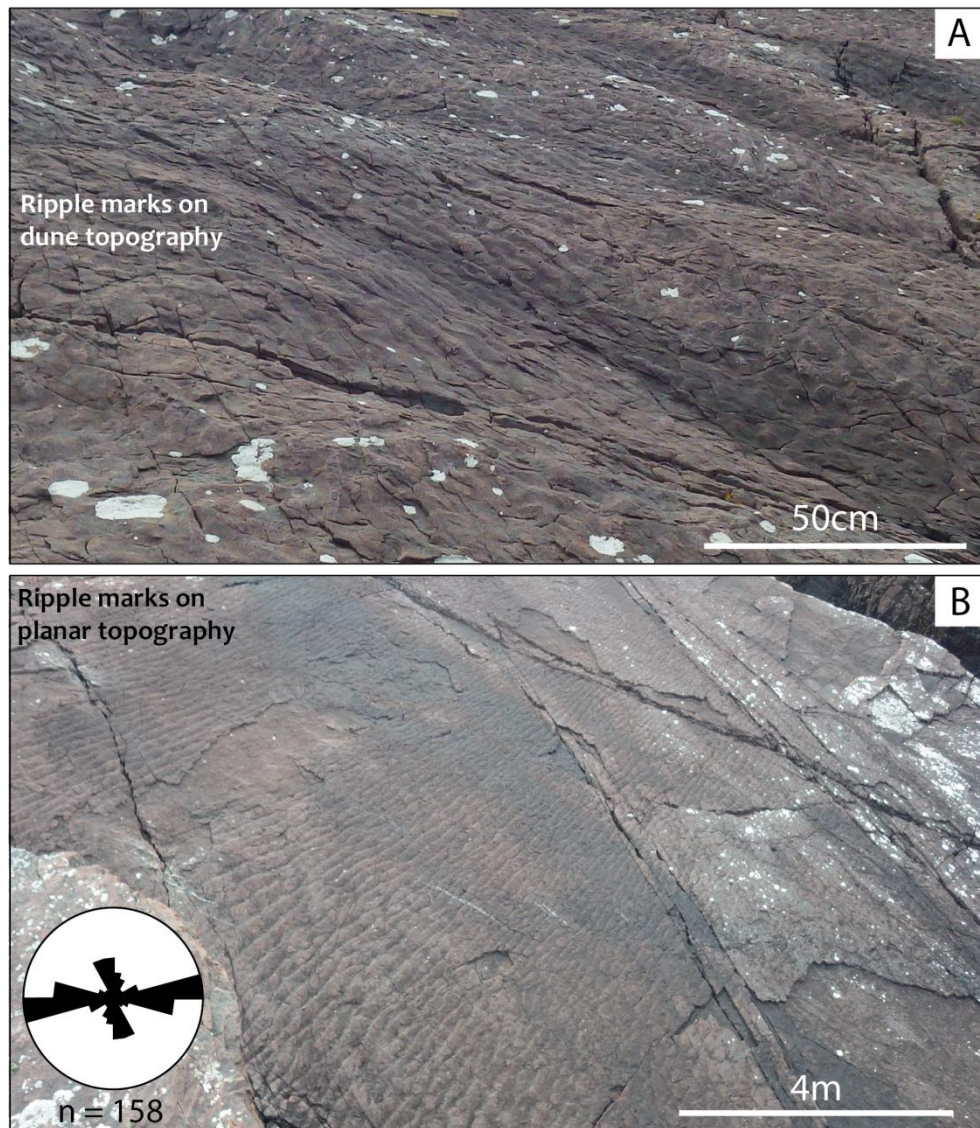
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42 Fig. 9

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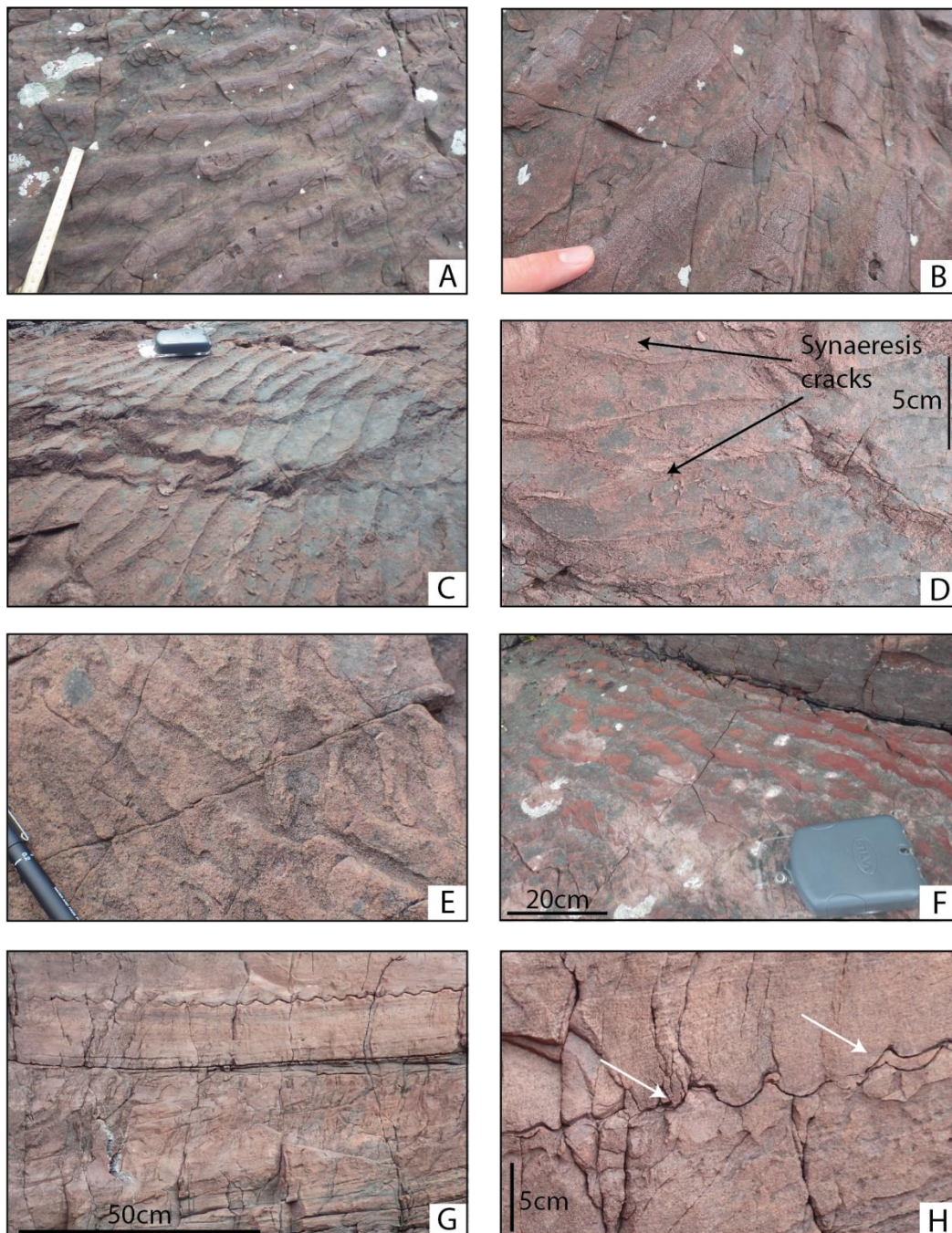
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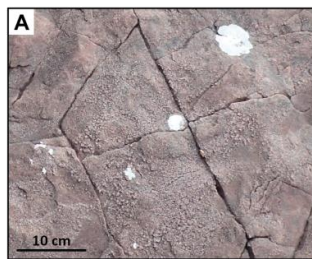
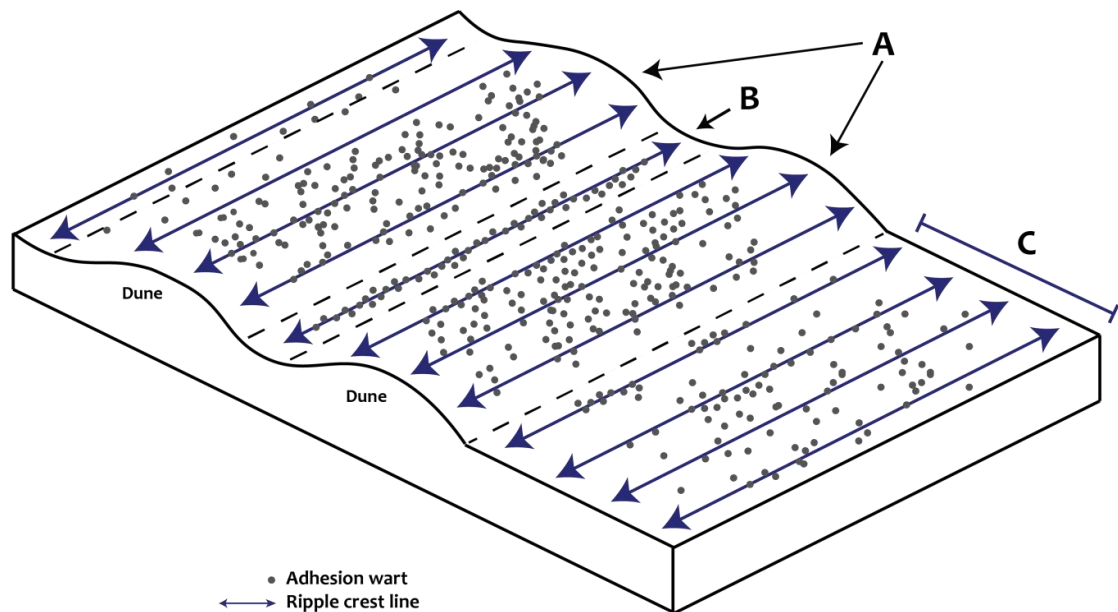
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59 Fig. 11.



A. Above dune crests, adhesion warts blanket ripple troughs and crests



B. Within dune troughs, adhesion warts restricted to ripple crests



C. On planar beds, adhesion is more common on, but not restricted to ripple crests

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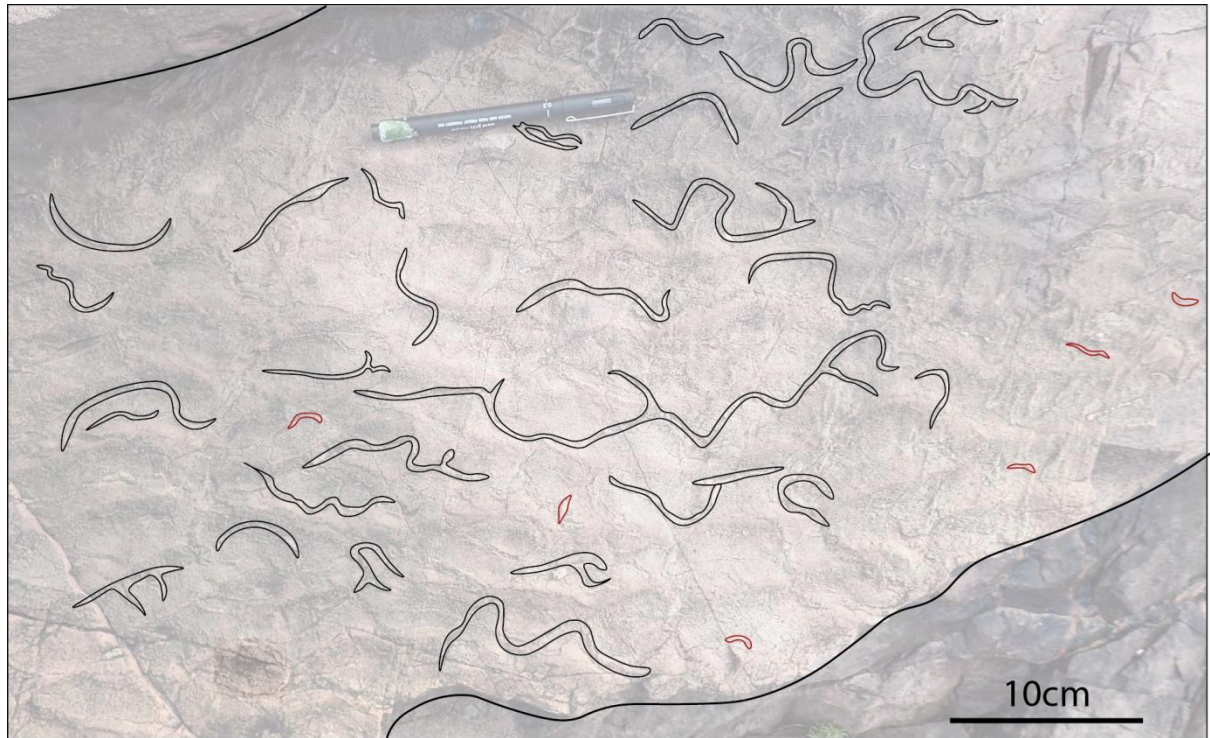
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72 Fig. 12

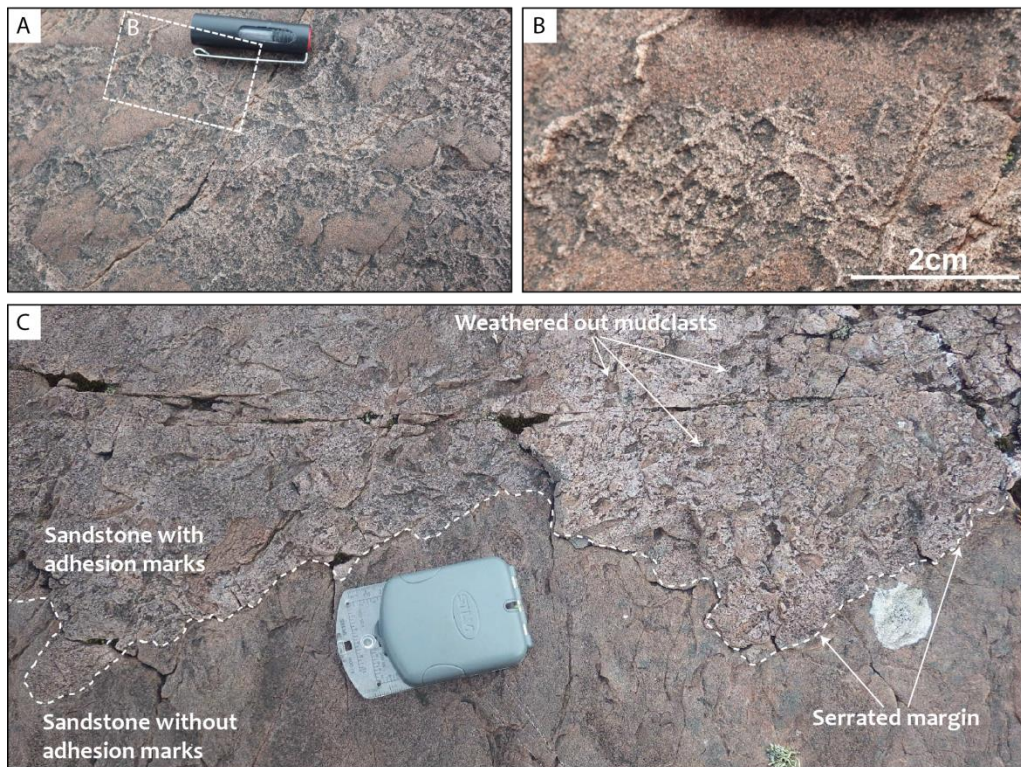


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75 Fig. 13

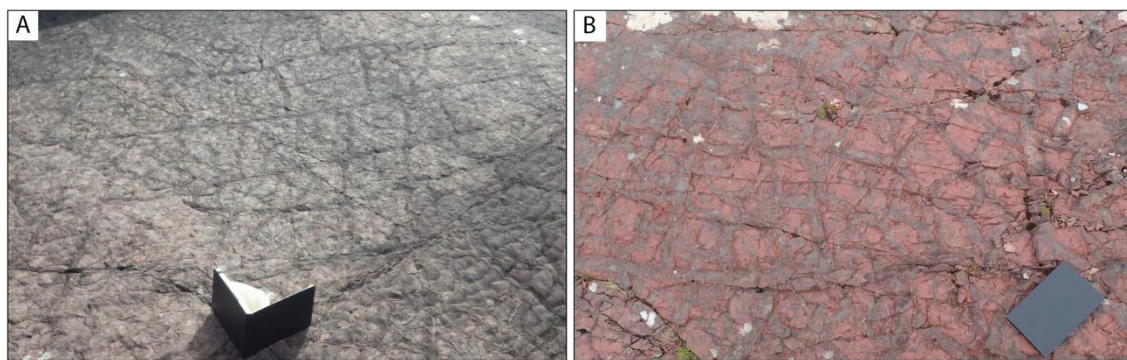
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79 Fig. 14



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81 Fig. 15

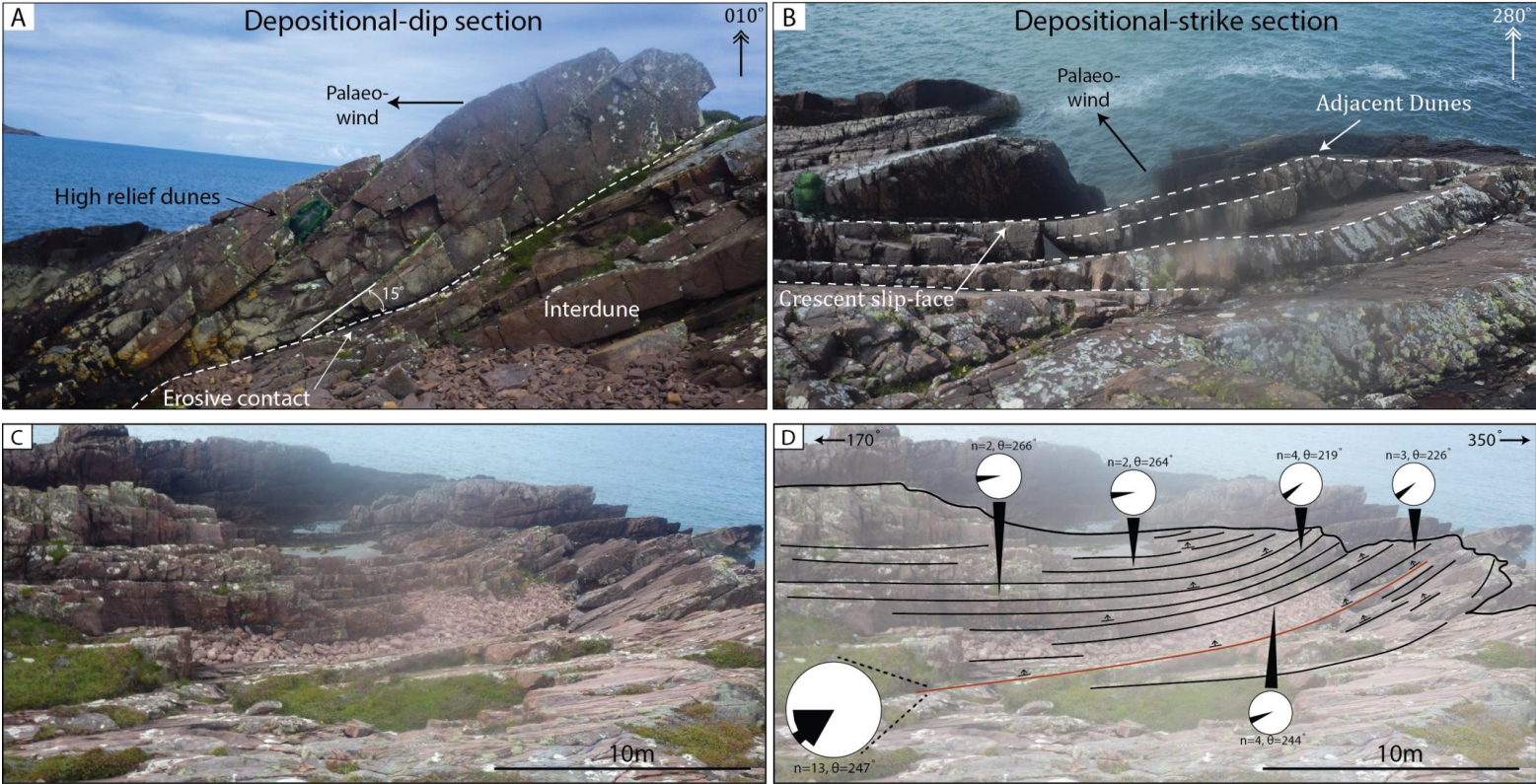


Fig.16

90 Fig. 16

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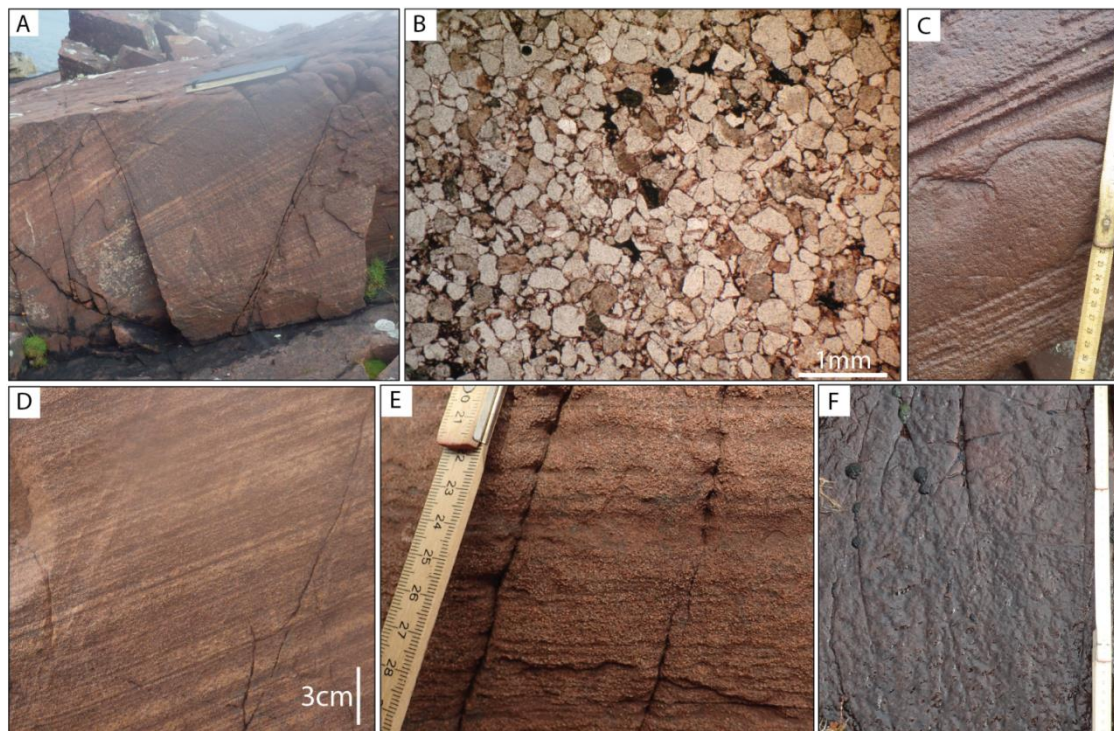
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97 Fig. 18

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112 Fig. 19.

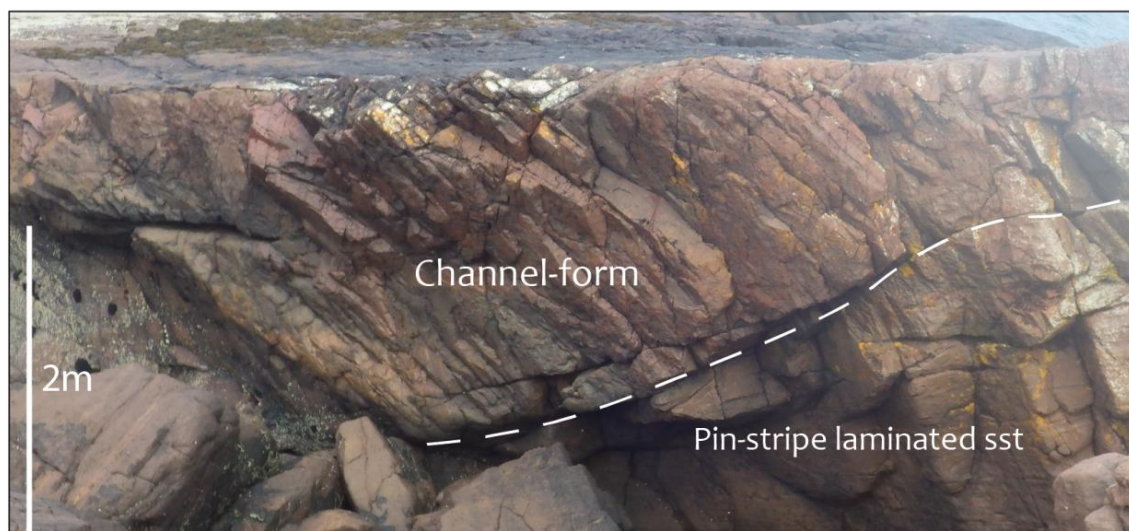
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115 Fig. 20.

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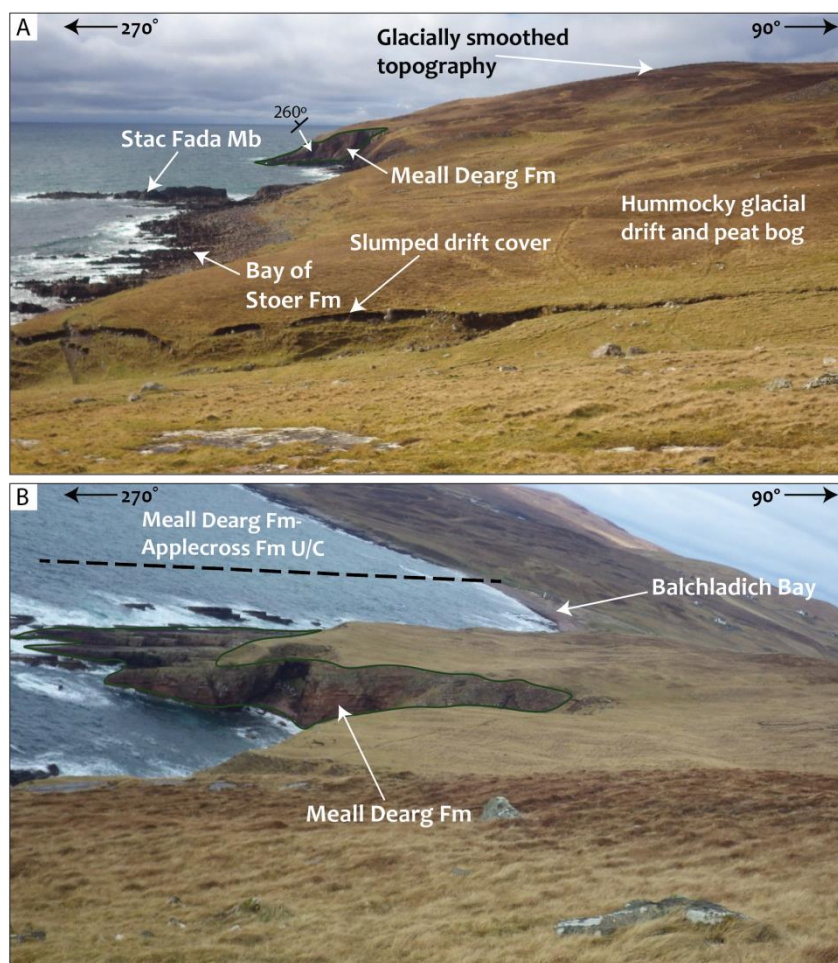


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120 Fig. 21.



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123 **Table 1.** Distribution of sedimentary structures across Meall Dearg locations. See text for information regarding frequency of occurrence.

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Facies Association	Location	Type of exposure	Horizontal laminations	Antidune Stratification	Chute and Pool Structures	Humpback cross-stratification	Low angle cross-stratification	Planar cross-stratification	Trough cross-stratification	Ripple-marks	Adhesion marks	<i>Manchurio-phycus</i>	Reticulate marks	Planar Bedding
FA1	Stoer	Vertical cliffs	Y		Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y			
	Rubha Réidh	Stepped wave-cut platforms	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	
	Bachladich Bay	Stepped wave-cut platforms	Y	Y			Y	Y		Y	Y			
FA2	Enard Bay	Stepped wave-cut platforms						Y		Y				Y

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